

Intermediate representations

Advanced Compiler Construction
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Intermediate representations

The term **intermediate representation (IR)** or **intermediate language** designates the data-structure(s) used by the compiler to represent the program being compiled.

Choosing a good IR is crucial, as many analyses and transformations (e.g. optimizations) are substantially easier to perform on some IRs than on others. Most non-trivial compilers actually use several IRs during the compilation process, and they tend to become more low-level as the code approaches its final form.

Code example

To illustrate the differences between the various intermediate representations, we will use a program fragment to compute and print the greatest common divisor (GCD) of 2016 and 714.

The L₃ version of that fragment could be:

```
(rec loop ((x 2016)
           (y 714))
  (if (= 0 y)
      (int-print x)
      (loop y (% x y))))
```

IR #1: CPS/L₃

CPS/L₃: a functional IR

A **functional IR** is an intermediate representation that is close to a (very) simple functional programming language.

Typical functional IRs have the following characteristics:

- all primitive operations (e.g. arithmetic operations) are performed on atomic values (variables or constants), and the result of these operations is always named,
- variables cannot be re-assigned.

As we will see later, some of these characteristics are shared with more mainstream IRs, like SSA.

CPS/L₃ is the functional IR used by the L₃ compiler.

Local continuations

A crucial notion in CPS/L₃ is that of **local continuation**.

A local continuation is similar to a (local) function but with the following restrictions:

- continuations are not "first class citizens": they cannot be stored in variables or passed as arguments – the only exception being the return continuation (described later),
- continuations never return, and must therefore be invoked in tail position.

These restrictions enable continuations to be compiled much more efficiently than normal functions. This is the only reason why continuations exist as a separate construct.

Uses of continuations

Continuations are used for two purposes in CPS/L₃:

1. To represent code blocks which can be "jumped to" from several locations, by invoking the continuation.
2. To represent the code to execute after a function call. For that purpose, every function gets a continuation as argument, which it must invoke with its return value.

CPS/L₃ grammar

```
T ::= (letp ((N (P A ...))) T)
      | (letc ((N (cnt (N ...) T))) T)
      | (letf ((N (fun (N N ...) T)) ...) T)
      | (appc A A ...)
      | (appf A N A ...)
      | (if (C A A) N N)
      | (halt A)
```

N ::= name

L ::= literal (e.g. integer, character, boolean or unit)

A ::= N | L

P ::= + | - | * | / | % | ...

C ::= < | <= | = | ...

atom

CPS/L₃ local binding

(let_p ((n (p a₁ ...))) e)

Binds the name n to the result of the application of primitive p to the value of a₁, ... in expression e.

The primitive p cannot be a logical (i.e. boolean) primitive, as such primitives are only meant to be used in conditional expressions – see later.

CPS/L₃ functions

(let_f ((f₁ (fun (r₁ n_{1,1}...) b₁)) ...) e)

Binds the names f₁, ... to functions with arguments n_{1,1}, ... and return continuation r₁, ... in expression e.

The functions can be mutually recursive.

The return continuation takes a single argument: the return value. Applying it is interpreted as returning from the function.

(app_f f r a₁ ...)

Applies the function bound to f to return continuation r and arguments a₁, ...

The name r must either be bound by an enclosing let_c or be the name of the return continuation of the current function.

CPS/L₃ local continuations

(let_c ((c₁ (cnt (n_{1,1} ...) b₁)) ...) e)

Binds the names c₁, ... to local continuations with arguments n_{1,1}, ... and body b₁, ... in expression e.

Interpretation: similar to a local function that does not return.

(app_c c a₁ ...)

Applies the continuation bound to c to the value of a₁, ... The name c must either be bound by an enclosing let_c or be the name of the return continuation of the current function.

Interpretation:

- if c designates a local continuation, jump to it (with arguments),
- if c designates the current return continuation, return from the current function, with the given return value.

CPS/L₃ control constructs

(if (p a₁ a₂) c_t c_f)

Tests whether the condition p is true for the value of a₁ and a₂, then applies continuation c_t if it is, or c_f if it isn't. Both c_t and c_f must be parameterless continuations.

The primitive p must be a logical primitive.

Note: if is a branching form of continuation application for parameterless continuations. It is therefore a conditional version of app_c.

(halt a)

Halts program execution, exiting with the value of a, which must be an integer.

Continuation scopes

The scoping rules of CPS/L₃ are mostly the “obvious ones”. The only exception is the rule for continuation variables, which are not visible in nested functions! For example, in the following code:

```
(letc ((c0 (cnt (r) (appf print r))))  
  (letf ((f (fun (c1 x)  
                 (letp ((t (+ x x))  
                       (c1 t)))))))
```

c₀ is *not* visible in the body of *f*!

This guarantees that continuations are truly local to the function that defines them, and can therefore be compiled efficiently.

CPS/L₃ syntactic sugar

To make CPS/L₃ programs easier to read and write, we allow the collapsing of nested occurrences of *let_p* and *let_c* expressions to a single *let** expression. We also allow the elision of *app_f* and *app_c* in applications. Example:

```
(letp ((c1 (+ 1 2)))  
  (letp ((c2 (+ 2 3)))  
    (letp ((c3 (+ c1 c2)))  
      ... (appf f c3))))
```

↕

```
(let* ((c1 (+ 1 2))  
      (c2 (+ 2 3))  
      (c3 (+ c1 c2)))  
  ... (f c3))
```

GCD in CPS/L₃

The CPS/L₃ version of the GCD program fragment looks as follows:

```
(letc ((loop  
  (cnt (x y)  
    (let* ((ct (cnt ()  
                (appf print x)))  
          (cf (cnt ()  
                (letp ((t (% x y))  
                      (appc loop y t))))))  
    (if (= y 0) ct cf))))))  
(appc loop 2016 714))
```

(To simplify, no return continuation is passed to *print*).

Translation of CL₃ to CPS/L₃

Translating CL₃ to CPS/L₃

The translation from CL₃ to CPS/L₃ is specified as a function denoted by $\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket$ and taking two arguments:

1. T, the CL₃ term to be translated,
2. C, the translation context, a CPS/L₃ term containing a hole into which an atom containing the value of the translated term has to be plugged.

This function is written in a “mixfix” notation, as follows:

$\llbracket T \rrbracket C$

and must return a CPS/L₃ term that includes both:

1. the translation of the CL₃ term T, and
2. the context C with its hole plugged by an atom containing the value of (the translation of) T.

Translation context

The **translation context** is a *partial* CPS/L₃ term representing the translation of the CL₃ expression surrounding the one being translated.

It is partial in the sense that it contains a single **hole**, representing an as-yet-unknown atom.

This hole is meant to be plugged eventually by the translation function, once it knows the atom in question.

Translation context

In what follows, and in the implementation, the translation context will be represented as a meta-function with a single argument – the hole.

For example, the following meta-function represents a partial CPS/L₃ `halt` node where the argument of `halt` is not yet known:

`λx(halt x)`

A context being a meta-function, its hole can be plugged simply by function application at the meta-level. For example, assuming the above context is called C, its hole can be plugged with the atom `1` as follows:

`C[1]`

producing the complete CPS/L₃ term `(halt 1)`.

The translation in Scala

In Scala – the meta-language in the L₃ project – the translation function $\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket$ is defined as a function with the following profile:

```
def CL3ToCPS(t: CL3Tree,  
             c: Atom ⇒ CPSTree): CPSTree
```

In the body of that function, plugging the context c with an atom bound to a Scala value named a is done using Scala function application:

```
c(a)
```

CL₃ to CPS/L₃ translation (1)

Note: in the following expressions, all underlined names are fresh.

$\llbracket a \rrbracket C$ where a is an atom (i.e. name or literal) =

$C[a]$

$\llbracket (\text{let } ((n_1 \ e_1) \ (n_2 \ e_2) \ \dots) \ e) \rrbracket C =$ id = identity primitive
(returns its argument)

$\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket (\lambda v_1 (\text{let}_p ((n_1 \ (\text{id } v_1)))$
 $\llbracket (\text{let } ((n_2 \ e_2) \ \dots) \ e) \rrbracket C))$

$\llbracket (\text{let } () \ e) \rrbracket C =$

$\llbracket e \rrbracket C$

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CL₃ to CPS/L₃ translation (2)

$\llbracket (\text{letrec } ((f_1 \ (\text{fun } (n_{1,1} \ n_{1,2} \ \dots) \ e_1)) \ \dots) \ e) \rrbracket C =$

$(\text{let}_f ((f_1 \ (\text{fun } (\underline{c} \ n_{1,1} \ n_{1,2} \ \dots)$
 $\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket (\lambda v \ (\text{app}_c \ c \ v)))) \ \dots)$

$\llbracket e \rrbracket C)$

$\llbracket (e \ e_1 \ e_2 \ \dots) \rrbracket C =$

$\llbracket e \rrbracket (\lambda v \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket (\lambda v_1 \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket (\lambda v_2 \ \dots$
 $(\text{let}_c ((\underline{c} \ (\text{cnt } (\underline{r}) \ C[r])))$
 $(\text{app}_f \ v \ c \ v_1 \ v_2 \ \dots))))$

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CL₃ to CPS/L₃ translation (3)

$\llbracket (\text{if } (@p \ e_1 \ \dots) \ e_2 \ e_3) \rrbracket C$ where p is a logical primitive =

$(\text{let}_c ((\underline{c} \ (\text{cnt } (\underline{r}) \ C[r])))$
 $(\text{let}_c ((\underline{ct} \ (\text{cnt } () \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket (\lambda v_2 \ (\text{app}_c \ c \ v_2))))$
 $(\text{let}_c ((\underline{cf} \ (\text{cnt } () \llbracket e_3 \rrbracket (\lambda v_3 \ (\text{app}_c \ c \ v_3))))$
 $\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket (\lambda v_1 \ \dots (\text{if } (@p \ v_1 \ \dots) \ ct \ cf))))$

$\llbracket (\text{if } e_1 \ e_2 \ e_3) \rrbracket C =$

$\llbracket (\text{if } (@= \ e_1 \ \#f) \ e_3 \ e_2) \rrbracket C$

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CL₃ to CPS/L₃ translation (4)

$\llbracket (@p \ e_1 \ e_2 \ \dots) \rrbracket C$ where p is a logical primitive =

$\llbracket (\text{if } (@p \ e_1 \ e_2 \ \dots) \ \#t \ \#f) \rrbracket C$

$\llbracket (@p \ e_1 \ e_2 \ \dots) \rrbracket C$ where p is not a logical primitive =

left as an exercise

$\llbracket (\text{halt } e) \rrbracket C =$

left as an exercise

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Initial context

In which context should a complete program be translated?

The simplest answer is a context that halts execution with an exit code of 0 (signalling no error), that is:

$\lambda v \text{ (halt } 0)$

An alternative would be to do something with the value v produced by the whole program, e.g. use it as the exit code instead of 0, print it, etc.

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Exercise

Translate the following L_3 expression:

$(f \ 1 \ 2)$

in the initial context, $\lambda v \text{ (halt } 0)$.

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Better translation of CL_3 to CPS/L_3

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Improving the translation

The translation presented before has two shortcomings:

1. it produces terms containing useless continuations, and
2. it produces suboptimal CPS/L_3 code for some conditionals.

One solution to improve the translation is to define several different translations depending on the *source* (i.e. L_3) context in which the expression to translate appears.

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Useless continuations

The first problem can be illustrated with the CL₃ term:

```
(letrec ((f (fun (g) (g)))) f)
```

which – in the empty context – gets translated to:

```
(letf ((f (fun (c g)
              (letc ((j (cnt (r) (appc c r))))
                (appf g j))))))
  f)
```

instead of the equivalent and more compact:

```
(letf ((f (fun (c g) (appf g c))))
  f)
```

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Suboptimal conditionals (1)

The second problem can be illustrated with the CL₃ term:

```
(if (if a b #f) x y)
```

which, in the empty context, gets translated to:

```
(let* ((ci1 (cnt (v1) v1))
       (ct1 (cnt () (appc ci1 x)))
       (cf1 (cnt () (appc ci1 y)))
       (ci2 (cnt (v2) (if (= v2 #f) cf1 ct1)))
       (ct2 (cnt () (appc ci2 b)))
       (cf2 (cnt () (appc ci2 #f))))
  (if (= a #f) cf2 ct2))
```

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Suboptimal conditionals (2)

A much better translation for:

```
(if (if a b #f) x y)
```

would be:

```
(let* ((ci1 (cnt (v1) v1))
       (ct1 (cnt () (appc ci1 x)))
       (cf1 (cnt () (appc ci1 y)))
       (ca1 (cnt () (if (= b #f) cf1 ct1))))
  (if (= a #f) cf1 ca1))
```

which immediately applies continuation cf1 if a is false.

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Source contexts

These two problems have in common the fact that the translation could be better if it depended on the source context in which the expression to translate appears.

- In the first example, the function call could be translated more efficiently because it appears as the last expression of the function (i.e. it is in **tail position**).
- For the second example, the nested if expression could be translated more efficiently because it appears in the condition of another if expression and one of its branches is a simple boolean literal (here #f).

Therefore, instead of having one translation function, we should have several: one per source context worth considering!

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A better translation

To solve the two problems, we split the single translation function into three separate ones:

1. $\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket_N C$, taking as before a term to translate and a context C , whose hole must be plugged with an atom containing the value of the term.
2. $\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket_T c$, taking a term to translate and the name of a one-parameter continuation c . This continuation is to be applied to the value of the term.
3. $\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket_C c_t c_f$, taking a term to translate and the names of two *parameterless* continuations, c_t and c_f . The continuation c_t is to be applied when the term evaluates to a true value, while the continuation c_f is to be applied when it evaluates to a false value.

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The *non-tail* translation

$\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket_N$ is called the **non-tail** translation as it is used in non-tail contexts. That is, when the work that has to be done once the term is evaluated is more complex than simply applying a continuation to the term's value.

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The *non-tail* translation

For example, the arguments of a primitive are always in a non-tail context, since once they are evaluated, the primitive has to be applied on their value:

$\llbracket (@p\ e_1\ e_2\ \dots) \rrbracket_N C$ where p is not a logical primitive =

```
 $\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket_N (\lambda v_1\ \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket_N (\lambda v_2\ \dots$ 
   $(\text{let}_p\ ((\underline{n}\ (p\ v_1\ v_2\ \dots))))$ 
   $C[\underline{n}]))$ 
```

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The *tail* translation

The **tail** translation $\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket_T$ is used whenever the context passed to the simple translation has the form $\lambda v\ (\text{app}_c\ c\ v)$. It gets as argument the name of the continuation c to which the value of expression should be applied.

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The *tail* translation

For example, the previous translation of function definition:

$$\llbracket (\text{letrec } ((f_1 \text{ (fun } (n_{1,1} \ n_{1,2} \dots) \ e_1)) \dots) \ e) \rrbracket C =$$

$$(\text{let}_f ((f_1 \text{ (fun } (\underline{c} \ n_{1,1} \ n_{1,2} \dots)$$

$$\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket (\lambda v \text{ (app}_c \ c \ v)))) \dots)$$

$$\llbracket e \rrbracket C)$$

becomes:

$$\llbracket (\text{letrec } ((f_1 \text{ (fun } (n_{1,1} \ n_{1,2} \dots) \ e_1)) \dots) \ e) \rrbracket_N C =$$

$$(\text{let}_f ((f_1 \text{ (fun } (\underline{c} \ n_{1,1} \ n_{1,2} \dots)$$

$$\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket_T c)) \dots)$$

$$\llbracket e \rrbracket_N C)$$

The *cond* translation

The **cond** translation $\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket_C$ is used whenever the term to translate is a condition to be tested to decide how execution must proceed. It gets two continuations names as arguments: the first is to be applied when the condition is true, while the second is to be applied when it is false.

The *cond* translation

This translation is used to handle the condition of an *if* expression:

$$\llbracket (\text{if } e_1 \ e_2 \ e_3) \rrbracket_N C =$$

$$(\text{let}_c ((\underline{c} \text{ (cnt } (\underline{r} \ C[r])))$$

$$(\text{let}_c ((\underline{ct} \text{ (cnt } () \ \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket_T c)))$$

$$(\text{let}_c ((\underline{cf} \text{ (cnt } () \ \llbracket e_3 \rrbracket_T c)))$$

$$\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket_C \ ct \ cf))))$$

The *cond* translation

Having a separate translation for conditional expressions makes the efficient compilation of conditionals with literals in one of their branch possible:

$$\llbracket (\text{if } e_1 \ e_2 \ \#f) \rrbracket_C C_t C_f =$$

$$(\text{let}_c ((\underline{ac} \text{ (cnt } () \ \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket_C C_t C_f)))$$

$$\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket_C \ ac \ C_f)$$

$$\llbracket (\text{if } e_1 \ \#f \ \#t) \rrbracket_C C_t C_f =$$

$$\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket_C C_f C_t$$

...and so on for all conditionals with at least one constant branch.

The better translation in Scala

In the compiler, the three translations are simply three mutually-recursive functions, with the following profiles:

```
def nonTail(t: CL3Tree)
  (c: Atom ⇒ CPSTree): CPSTree
def tail(t: CL3Tree,
  c: Symbol): CPSTree
def cond(t: CL3Tree,
  ct: Symbol,
  cf: Symbol): CPSTree
```

IR #2: standard RTL/CFG

Register-transfer language

A **register-transfer language (RTL)** is a kind of intermediate representation in which most operations compute a function of several virtual registers (i.e. variables) and store the result in another virtual register.

For example, the instruction adding variables y and z , storing the result in x could be written $x \leftarrow y + z$.

Such instructions are sometimes called **quadruples**, because they typically have four components: the three variables (x , y and z here) and the operation ($+$ here).

RTLs are very close to assembly languages, the main difference being that the number of virtual registers is usually not bounded.

Control-flow graph

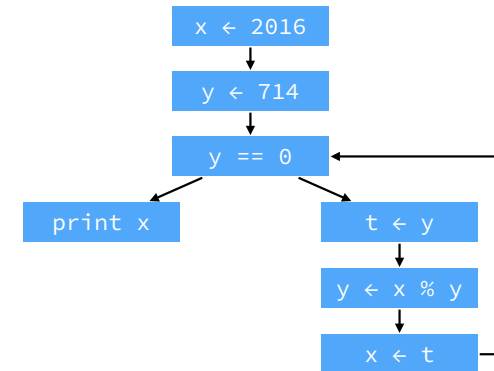
A **control-flow graph (CFG)** is a directed graph whose nodes are the individual instructions of a function, and whose edges represent control-flow. More precisely, there is an edge in the CFG from a node n_1 to a node n_2 if and only if the instruction of n_2 can be executed immediately after the instruction of n_1 .

RTL/CFG

RTL/CFG is the name given to intermediate representations where each function of the program is represented as a control-flow graph whose node contain RTL instructions.
This kind of representation is very common in the later stages of compilers, especially those for imperative languages.

RTL/CFG example

Computation of the GCD of 2016 and 714 in a typical RTL/CFG representation.

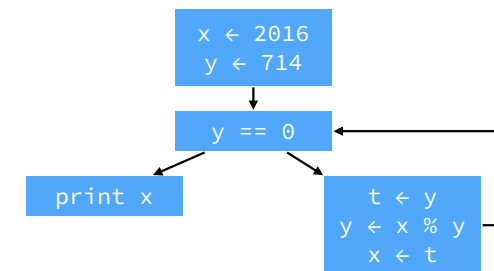


Basic blocks

A **basic block** is a maximal sequence of instruction for which control can only enter through the first instruction of the block and leave through the last. Basic blocks are sometimes used as the nodes of the CFG, instead of individual instructions. This has the advantage of reducing the number of nodes in the CFG, but also complicates data-flow analyses.

RTL/CFG example

The same examples as before, but with basic blocks instead of individual instructions.



RTL/CFG issues

One problem of RTL/CFG is that even very simple optimizations (e.g. constant propagation, common-subexpression elimination) require data-flow analyses.

This is because a single variable can be assigned multiple times.

Is it possible to improve RTL/CFG so that these optimizations can be performed without prior analysis?

Yes, by using a single-assignment variant of RTL/CFG!

IR #3: RTL/CFG in SSA form

SSA form

An RTL/CFG program is said to be in **static single-assignment (SSA)** form if each variable has only one definition in the program.

That single definition can be executed many times when the program is run – if it is inside a loop – hence the qualifier static.

SSA form is popular because it simplifies several optimizations and analysis, as we will see.

Most (imperative) programs are not naturally in SSA form, and must therefore be transformed so that they are.

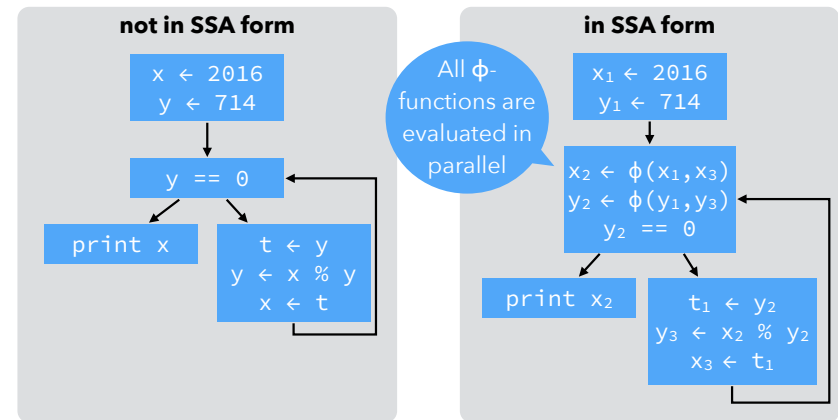
Straight-line code

<pre>x ← 12 y ← 15 x ← x + y y ← x + 4 z ← x + y y ← y + 1</pre>		<pre>x₁ ← 12 y₁ ← 15 x₂ ← x₁ + y₁ y₂ ← x₂ + 4 z₁ ← x₂ + y₂ y₃ ← y₂ + 1</pre>
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ϕ -functions

Join-points in the CFG – nodes with more than one predecessor – are more problematic, as each predecessor can bring its own version of a given name. To reconcile those different versions, a fictional **ϕ -function** is introduced at the join point. That function takes as argument all the versions of the variable to reconcile, and automatically selects the right one depending on the flow of control.

ϕ -functions example



Evaluation of ϕ -functions

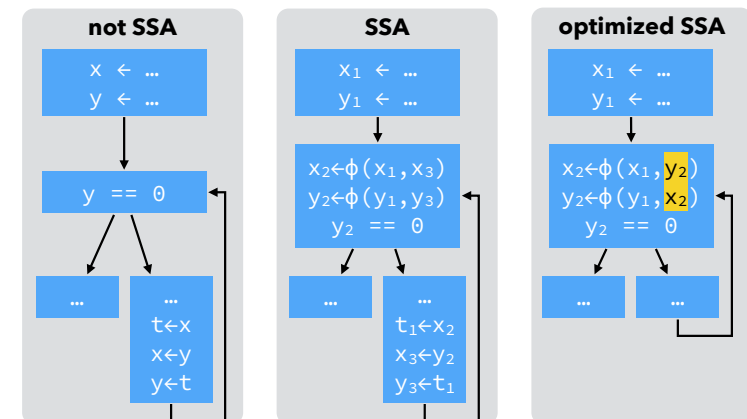
It is crucial to understand that all ϕ -functions of a block are evaluated *in parallel*, and not in sequence as the representation might suggest! To make this clear, some authors write ϕ -functions in matrix form, with one row per predecessor:

$$(x_2, y_2) \leftarrow \phi \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & y_1 \\ x_3 & y_3 \end{pmatrix} \text{ instead of } \begin{matrix} x_2 \leftarrow \phi(x_1, x_3) \\ y_2 \leftarrow \phi(y_1, y_3) \end{matrix}$$

In the following slides, we will usually stick to the common, linear representation, but keep the parallel nature of ϕ -functions in mind.

Evaluation of ϕ -functions

The following loop illustrates why ϕ -functions must be evaluated in parallel.

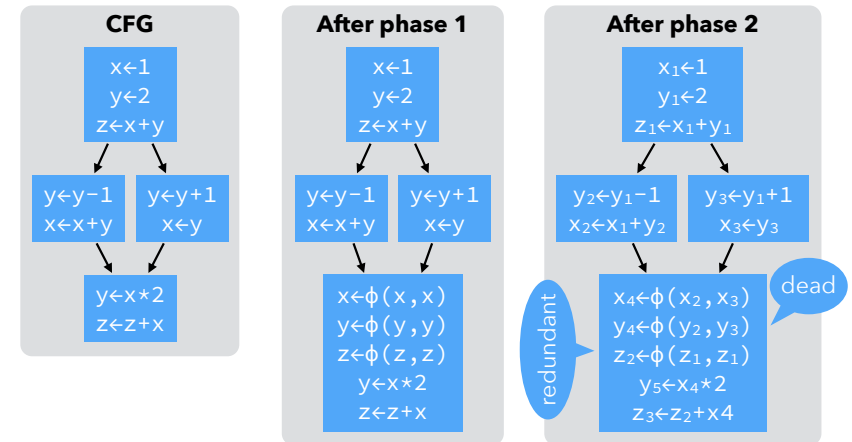


(Naïve) building of SSA form

Naïve technique to build SSA form:

- for each variable x of the CFG, at each join point n , insert a ϕ -function of the form $x = \phi(x, \dots, x)$ with as many parameters as n has predecessors,
- compute reaching definitions, and use that information to rename any use of a variable according to the – now unique – definition reaching it.

(Naïve) building of SSA form



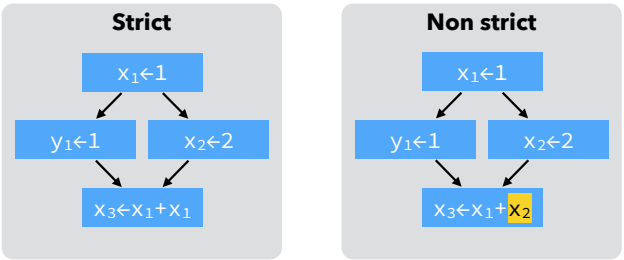
Better building techniques

The naïve technique just presented works, in the sense that the resulting program is in SSA form and is equivalent to the original one. However, it introduces too many ϕ -functions – some dead, some redundant – to be useful in practice. It builds the **maximal** SSA form. Better techniques exist to translate a program to SSA form.

Strict SSA form

A program is said to be in **strict SSA form** if it is in SSA form and all uses of a variable are dominated by the definition of that variable. (In a CFG, a node n_1 **dominates** a node n_2 if all paths from the entry node to n_2 go through n_1 .) Strict SSA form guarantees that no variable is used before being defined.

Strict SSA form



Comparing IRs

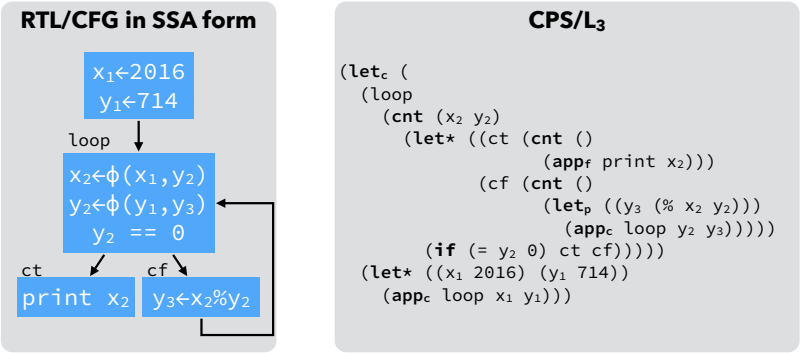
CPS/L₃ vs RTL/CFG in SSA

As the correspondences in the table below illustrate, CPS/L₃ is very close to RTL/CFG in SSA form.

RTL/CFG in SSA = CPS/L₃

- (named) basic block = continuation
- ϕ -function = continuation argument
- jump = continuation invocation
- strict form = scoping rules

CPS/L₃ vs RTL/CFG in SSA



Summary and references

Claim: continuation-based, functional IRs like CPS/L₃ are SSA done right, and should replace it – or, at the very least, ϕ -functions should be replaced by continuation arguments.

(This is fortunately starting to happen, e.g. the Swift Intermediate Language has basic-blocks with arguments.)

* * *

CPS/L₃ is heavily based on the intermediate representation presented by Andrew Kennedy in *Compiling with Continuations, Continued*, in Proceedings of the International Conference on Functional Programming (ICFP) 2007.